



APPENDIX

TO THE

LONDON MAGAZINE.

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JOURNAL of the PROCEEDINGS and DEBATES
in the POLITICAL CLUB, continued from Page 544.

As the Number of Seamen employed in the publick Service was last Year very much reduced, I shall now give you two very remarkable Speeches made in our Club upon that Subject, the first of which was made by C. Numilius, and was in Substance as follows, viz.

Mr. President,
S I R,



I SHALL readily agree with the Hon. gentlemen, who have moved for the number of seamen proposed to be kept in pay for the service of the ensuing year, that this nation had never more occasion for frugality in every branch of the publick expence than it has at present; but it seems to me to be a strange piece of œconomy, to diminish our naval force, when at the same time we are increasing the number of

R—t N—t, Esq;

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our land forces, or at least not diminishing it so much as by one man less than we had last year. This, I say, Sir, is a strange sort of œconomy, considering our situation; and such a one, as might make people believe, that those who advised and drew up the estimates for our sea and land force, imagined, that they were drawing up estimates for the French government, and not for that of England. In France, indeed, they must keep up a numerous standing army, not only for defending their wide extended frontier, but to enforce the absolute power of their king; and therefore in time of peace they must be more frugal as to their naval expence, than they can well be as to that of their army: But here in England we have no frontier to defend by a land army, and our sovereign desires not to establish his power upon any thing but the affections of his subjects: Our strength consists in our navy; and that we ought chiefly to depend on for of-

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fence as well as defence; therefore we ought to be frugal upon any other article of publick expence, rather than upon that of our navy.

I shall grant, Sir, that the army proposed by the estimate now before us, is not sufficient for enabling us to make that figure in Europe which we ought to do; but our present circumstances will not allow us to keep up any greater number; and if our ministers think, that our present circumstances will not allow us to keep up the number now proposed, without such an extraordinary reduction of our naval force, they ought to have proposed our keeping up a much smaller force by land, in order to prevent our being reduced to the necessity of diminishing our force by sea. If they have erred in their judgment, and given an imprudent advice to our sovereign, it is our business and our duty to correct that error; therefore, I think, we ought to postpone coming to any resolution upon the present motion, until we have taken the army into consideration; and if we should think it consistent with our safety to take nine or ten thousand men from the army, we may then keep a much greater force by sea than what is now proposed.

But this is not all, Sir: I am convinced, that the provision now proposed for our naval force will be found insufficient: We must run in debt; and that I shall always protest against. Our ministers, I know, have always been pretty apt to run in debt upon the articles relating to our navy, because they have found that a navy debt is what the parliament will most readily submit to the payment of; and to this condescension our ministers, during the last war, trusted more than any of their predecessors ever did; for tho' during the last war, from the beginning to the end of it, we had no enemy to deal with, that could or durst face us at sea, when our squadrons were

under a proper command, yet our ministers contracted in that war a larger navy debt than had been contracted during the whole war in queen Anne's reign; and that, tho' they had not a pretence to say, that the parliament had ever once scrupled to grant whatever sums they thought necessary for the service of the ensuing year.

This, Sir, is a most dangerous practice: It was this practice that first induced us to run in debt; and by the repetition of it our national debt is now swelled to such a monstrous bulk, that I am afraid, it will at last prove our ruin. It necessarily must, if no expedient can be found for paying off a great part of it at once: The increase of the sinking fund by the reduction of interest, will not by itself alone now do the business; for tho' the operation be sure, it is in its nature so slow, that the nation is in danger of expiring before it can work its effect. Besides, we cannot now propose to carry on any war without diverting that sacred fund from the use for which it was at first designed, and to which it ought to have been religiously applied; and from the nature of things, especially in their present aspect, it is impossible to suppose, that this nation can continue in peace, till our publick debts have been all extinguished by means of our sinking fund: Even supposing that such an improbable event should happen, we must gradually diminish our sinking fund, by abolishing many of those taxes that now lie so heavy upon the poor, and upon all materials for manufacture; by which taxes our commerce is rendered so troublesome and expensive, that we cannot navigate or carry on commerce so easily or at so cheap a rate as some of our neighbours do; and the price of labour is in this country raised so high, that none of our manufactures can be sold in foreign markets at so low a price as manu-
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factures of the same kind are sold by our rivals.

From this consideration, Sir, I must conclude, that if we do not very soon abolish some of those taxes, both our commerce and manufactures will in a few years be undone; and as this would greatly lessen the numbers of our people, and impoverish those that remained, the certain consequence would be, a considerable diminution, if not a total extinguishment of our sinking fund, which would put an end even to our hopes of being ever able to discharge our national debt. Thus, Sir, we are in what I am sorry to call a desperate situation: If we do diminish our sinking fund, by abolishing some of our taxes, we cannot possibly expect the publick tranquillity to last till it has worked the desired effect; and if we do not diminish that fund, by abolishing some of those taxes, the whole of it may sink under the ruin of our commerce and manufactures; and with it we shall lose not only the hopes of being ever able to pay our debts, but also the hopes of being able to preserve our superiority at sea; for no nation ever could support a formidable naval force without an extensive commerce.

This, Sir, should make us diligent in the search of other expedients for discharging a part of the national debt; at least, it should make us careful not to run into any new debt, by making the estimates for the service of our navy short of what that service may necessarily require, for the sake of gaining a short-lived popularity to our ministers for the time being. A neglect of posterity has always been a complaint against ministers; and with regard to most of them, the complaint has been but too well founded; but of late years our ministers have seemed to neglect not only posterity, but the very next stage of futurity. Present ease has been the only goddess they adored: I shall not say, that they left to mor-

row to provide for itself; but I will say, that without any assurance of, or indeed any title to, the protection of Providence, they have generally in a great measure left the next year to provide for itself. In order to obtain with ease a present supply, they have brought in estimates, which they knew to be short of what the measures they had resolved on would require, and they have proposed funds, which in all probability would not fully answer what was to be charged upon them. By such means as these they first induced the nation to extend the annual expence beyond the annual supplies; and by degrees they at last brought us to consider only what we might raise upon our credit, without the least regard to what we might annually supply; as if the credit of this nation were inexhaustible, and as if by bringing one war to a happy issue, we could secure ourselves from ever being engaged in another.

Common sense, Sir, must convince every man that reflects, of the sudden destruction that must necessarily at last attend this method of proceeding. I say sudden, Sir, because credit, either publick or private, generally fails suddenly and often unaccountably; and our publick credit's failing will be attended with the more unavoidable destruction, because if ever it should happen, it will certainly be when we have the most occasion for it, that is to say, when we are in the heat of a heavy and expensive war, and have just met with some signal defeat, or are threatned with an immediate invasion. I am far from thinking that the credit of this nation is as yet stretched so far, that another pull would make it burst asunder: I believe, that with a cautious and prudent management we might still raise several millions upon our credit; yet we know, that during last war it was twice brought into great jeopardy: Once by ill success,

cess, when the rebellion wore its most dismal aspect; and a second time by bad conduct, when, for supporting the war, we were forced to borrow six millions at once, and some people thought to have made a jobb of the publick necessity for enriching themselves and their friends; but they found themselves so far mistaken, that it would have proved the ruin of most of them, if the preliminaries of Aix-la-Chapelle had not extricated them out of that danger, which their avarice had led them into.

Such gentlemen, indeed, had reason to rejoice at those preliminaries, and I believe, Sir, they were the only gentlemen in this nation that did rejoice at them. Even they will not have the assurance to say, that the preliminaries were such as the nation had reason to rejoice at; but, bad as they were, they would not have been near so good, if the conduct of our navy and the bravery of our seamen had not made it as impossible for France to support the war by sea, as it was for us to support it by land, after the conduct of those gentlemen had brought our national credit upon the very brink of perdition. They therefore, of all men in the world, have most reason to plead for the preservation of our strength at sea, and for treating our seamen in the most humane and grateful manner; but whether they have done so or no, I shall leave gentlemen to judge from the motion now before us, as well as from several other parts of our conduct since that treaty of peace was concluded, which the danger of our publick credit, or at least of some persons amongst us, had made necessary, and the success of our navy enabled us to obtain.

As I am always, Sir, under great anxiety about the preservation of our naval force, and as I think our seamen have not since the peace met with that usage they had a right to expect, I could not upon this oc-

casione avoid communicating some of my thoughts upon that subject; but shall not conclude with any motion, only I must desire gentlemen to consider, that we have already disbanded near 30,000 seamen; and if we now add 5000 more to that number, God knows, how many of them may put it out of our power ever again to press them into our service; for whatever opinion we may have of their merit, every one knows, that it has justice done to it by those who are our most dangerous rivals in naval power, and who now at last seem to have learned, that it is impossible to have either commerce or colonies, without a sufficient naval force to protect them in time of war.

The other Speech upon this Occasion was made by C. Lutatus, and was to this Effect:

Mr. President,

S I R,

AS I have not the honour to be let into any of the secrets of the cabinet, I cannot with any degree of certainty judge of the present circumstances of Europe, or of the views and designs of any of the courts thereof; but from our conduct here at home with regard to naval affairs, one would think, that our ministers had an assurance of the continuance of the present tranquillity as long as any of the present generation could remain alive. I confess, my hopes are far from being so sanguine; but suppose they were, I should be against reducing the number of our seamen employed in the publick service, so low as that now proposed; because I think, this nation should always have 15 or 20,000 seamen in pay, for preserving the respect due to the British flag, and for preventing our being under a necessity to distress our trade at the breaking out of a war.

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In time of peace it is not enough, Sir, to keep in constant readiness a few guard-ships here at home, and a few more upon the coasts of our plantations and colonies in America: Even in time of peace our men of war should be constantly traversing the ocean, the Baltick and Mediterranean, and appearing often in the ports of our allies, and of those who may afterwards happen to be our enemies. This would among all nations preserve our character as a maritime power, and it would prevent our merchant-ships from being insulted by those of any other nation. Gentlemen who live always at home, or who travel only to see courts, fashions, and curiosities, may not perhaps be sensible of the consequence of preserving a national character in foreign countries; but merchants who reside there, or seamen who trade thither, often feel it, and are often made to smart for it, when it happens to be any way lessened or impeached. Then as to merchant-ships sailing in the open seas, they are often exposed to insults, when they happen to meet a foreign ship of superior force; and as most foreign ships, especially the French, sail with a greater number of men than our merchant-ships usually do, our ships are more exposed to these insults than those of any other nation. This, Sir, I know by experience; for I have been often in danger of being provoked to do something very irregular, when I have heard of the ill usage some of our merchant-ships had met with at sea from a French ship of superior force. But when such foreign ships are in continual danger of meeting with an English man of war at sea, they will be cautious of insulting any British subject, lest they should meet with one that had been informed of what they had done, and consequently meet with immediate punishment. And when our men of war appear often upon the coasts,

or in the ports of foreign nations, it will keep them in mind of our naval power, and enforce a respect for every British subject that either resides or sojourns in their country.

Thus we may see, Sir, what dangers and inconveniences our commerce may be exposed to, by reducing the number of our seamen to that which may be barely sufficient for our guard-ships, and those we ought to have always in readiness at home, in case of any sudden rupture; and from hence we may see the necessity of our keeping, even in time of peace, a greater number of seamen in pay than what is now proposed. But the other reason is still stronger; for we should avoid as much as possible our being ever obliged to bring our trade into any distress, yet this we must always do at the beginning of a war, if we do not keep above 10,000 seamen in the government's service in time of peace. Let us consider, Sir, that generally speaking a man must be bred up at sea, almost from his infancy, to make him an able and thorough-bred seaman; such a man is incapable of gaining a livelihood by any sort of laborious business at land; and if he gets into any sort of easy business, such as that of a shop-keeper or alehouse-keeper, he soon becomes unfit for the sea service. Therefore we can never have in the country any greater number of seamen than are in almost constant employment; for if by any accident there happens to be a greater number than can get employment, most of the supernumeraries must go into foreign service; therefore, in time of peace, we should always have in the government's service such a number as may be sufficient for carrying on a war, with the addition of a fourth or a fifth part of the number usually employed in carrying on our commerce, coasting trade and fisheries; for that proportion they may supply by landmen or young fellows, without

out endangering their ships ; but no trading vessel can sail with safety, if she has above a fourth or fifth part of her usual complement that are not able and expert seamen ; and consequently, when at the beginning of a war you are obliged to take above A that proportion from your trade, you not only bring it into distress, but many of our trading ships into great danger.

To this I must add, Sir, that as every war must necessarily increase the number of our seamen, we should never at the end of a war discharge a great number at once ; for by so doing we force a great number of our seamen into foreign service : Whereas, if we discharge them by degrees, and detain none in the publick service but such as are willing to remain in it, multitudes by little and little get into some way of supporting themselves at land ; so that in a few years we may reduce the number in the publick service to that which in times of the most profound tranquillity we ought to keep in that service, without laying any of our good seamen under a necessity of going into foreign service, and without giving our seamen in general a distaste to the service of the government ; which two advantages would surely be an equivalent for the expence the publick might be put to, by keeping for two or three years a greater number of seamen in pay than it had any necessary occasion for.

With regard to the land service, Sir, the case is very different : A common fellow taken from the plough, or from any mechanical employment, may in two or three months, or at least after the first campaign, make as good a soldier as the oldest veteran ; and when the war is over, and the regiment he belongs to disbanded, he may directly return to, G and get a subsistence by the business he was bred up to. Therefore, tho' our lifting a great number of labourers and mechanicks at the begin-

ning of a war, may raise the price of wages, it can never put an absolute stop to any sort of business carried on at land ; and tho' we should at the end of a war disband a great number of soldiers at once, it can never force any of them into foreign service ; for tho' it would presently reduce the price of wages, yet as this would increase the business, and consequently require a greater number of hands, every soldier so disbanded might get a subsistence by the business he was bred to, and no man can be said to be forced to go abroad, if it be any way in his power to earn a subsistence at home. However, Sir, I cannot but approve of the method taken since the end of the last war, to give employment to many of our disbanded soldiers and seamen by sending a colony to Nova Scotia. I only wish it had been resolved on sooner ; and I hope the same method will be taken at the end of every future war ; for that is certainly the most proper time for sending out a new colony.

What I have hitherto said, Sir, was upon a supposition that we have at present a reasonable prospect of a lasting tranquillity : What secret informations our ministers may have, I do not know ; but from publick appearances, I am sure, we can have no such prospect : Nay, I am afraid, that by endeavouring to prolong the peace, we shall accelerate the necessity of a war. During the late long administration we fell into the very same sort of error, with regard F to our disputes with Spain, as I truly prophesied to our then chief minister ; for as I had been much employed upon the coasts of America, I was desired by my friend Sir John Norris, to go along with him to wait on Sir Robert Walpole, which I accordingly did, and to him I very freely declared my opinion, that if reprisals had been issued upon the very first insult that had been offered to us by the Spaniards in America,

rica, we should have had no war, because they would have submitted to make reparation, and to such an explanation of the treaties subsisting between the two nations, as would have prevented any future insult; but that the damages were then so high, and they had been so long in possession of the custom of searching our ships in the open seas, that I believed an open war would be the immediate consequence of reprisals. Soon after this, Sir, I was again stationed upon the coast of America, and was at New-York when the orders for reprisals arrived: I received them with joy, and refitted my ship with the utmost expedition; but when I was just ready to put to sea, counter-orders arrived, and it was a long time before I had the satisfaction to receive any fresh orders either for reprisals or hostilities.

Every gentleman knows, Sir, what afterwards ensued; and if I am rightly informed, not only the Spaniards but the French too continue to insult us, and to incroach upon our rights in America, notwithstanding the late treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle. I say, continue, Sir; for this is not a new practice in either. Before the late war the French had begun their incroachments, and had carried them on without any disturbance from us, till the late war happened, upon another account, between the two nations: I wish we had taken the opportunity of that war, to disturb them a little more than we did in America; for long before the war began, they had begun to plant the island of St. Lucia; and they had built a fort not only within the charter, but actually within the limits of the province of New-York; of which the governor of that province gave due notice to our ministers here, and desired new instructions upon that head, but never to this day received any; so that the French are now in quiet possession of that fort, and consequently of

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a part of the province of New-York; and I am told they have very lately, that is, since the late treaty of peace, begun to build another at the mouth of St. John's river in Fundy-bay, which is certainly within the ancient limits of Nova Scotia; but I hope proper orders have already been sent to our governor of Nova Scotia upon this head; for it is much easier to prevent building a fort than to demolish it after it is built; and if we are afraid that the preventing of it would occasion a war, we have much more reason to fear that consequence from our demolishing it. In all such cases it is ridiculous to negotiate, while they are fortifying: A stop to the fortification should be the previous article, and the article *sine qua non*, to a negotiation; and this should be an express instruction always given to every governor we send to America, both with respect to the continent, and with respect to the neutral islands in that part of the world.

With regard to the letters of reprisal at sea too, our governors in the West-Indies ought always, Sir, to be furnished with a power to issue them when any manifest injustice has been committed in that part of the world, upon the subjects of this nation, by those of any other. The Dutch governor at Curassoa is always furnished with such a power, and is seldom over scrupulous in the use of it, by which means the Dutch ships sail about their lawful business in those seas, with more safety than ours have done for many years; for the more quick you are in resenting an injury or insult, the fewer such you will always meet with; and if you shew yourselves so much afraid of a war, as to delay resenting in a proper and peremptory manner the first insult or incroachment, you may depend upon it, that a war will be the consequence of the first revenge you take; for by such a delay you not only give those you have to deal

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with an opinion of your pusillanimity, but by submitting to several insults or incroachments, you throw into their hands a subject they think worth contending for by force of arms.

Now, Sir, as the Spaniards, if I am rightly informed, continue their insults, and the French their incroachments, in America, I have reason to fear, that if we do not resolve upon a very speedy and vigorous resentment, an open war will be the certain consequence, unless our ministers are resolved to bear with all the injuries and indignities that can be offered rather than hazard an open rupture, which I am persuaded they are not; and therefore I cannot but be surpris'd at the reduction of our naval force now propos'd; for if we should issue orders for reprisals, or for demolishing the French forts within our limits in America, or upon the islands belonging to us in the West-Indies, surely such a great diminution of our naval force is not the way to prevent a war's being the consequence of our issuing such orders; and I hope our ministers do not think of taking a whole year for negotiating, while the French are in the mean time fortifying themselves in our territories, and the Spaniards plundering our merchants under pretence of what they call contraband goods.

I am therefore, Sir, so far from thinking, that the hopes we have of a lasting tranquillity, can be a solid foundation for our discharging such a number of seamen, that, I believe, our discharging such a number of seamen as we have lately done, and now propose to do, will contribute towards putting a speedy end to the tranquillity we now enjoy, by encouraging both the French and Spaniards to continue their incroachments and insults, and to declare war against us, if we should begin to shew a proper resentment. Our ministers may, if they please, continue to negotiate, but if the Spaniards continue to in-

sult, and the French to incroach, the people will not bear it long; and from the fate of their predecessor, our present ministers may learn, that the most pacifick minister may be forced into a war by a brave and injured people. If this should be the issue, which, I think, it probably will, we shall then to our cost, tho' I hope not to our ruin, feel the fatal effects of our precipitate frugality, in discharging such a number of our brave seamen; but as I am entirely ignorant of the present state of our negotiations either at the court of France or Spain, and as my fears proceed only from publick appearances, I shall not conclude with any motion, but with a wish, that our ministers may not allow themselves to be amused with deceitful negotiations, and thereby led into a false or ill-grounded security.

[*This JOURNAL to be continued in our MAGAZINE for January, 1751.*]

More Extracts from the Philosophical Transactions, No. 491. (See p. 544—547.)

An Account of a new invented arithmetical Instrument, called a Shwan-pan, or Chinese Accompt-Table; by Gamaliel Smethurst.

THE Chinese have for many ages picqu'd themselves on being the most wise of any nation in the world; but late experience and closer converse with them hath found this pride to be ill-grounded. One particular, in which they think they excel all mankind, is, their manner of accompting, which they do with an instrument compos'd of a number of wires with beads upon them, which they move backwards and forwards. This instrument they call a Shwan-pan.

Now I trust I have form'd one on the plan of our 9 Digits, that in no case falls short of the Chinese Shwan-pan, but in many excels theirs.

The Chinese, according to the accounts of travellers, are so happy as to have their parts of an integer in their coins, &c. decimated, so can multiply or divide their integers and parts as if they were only integers. This gives them the advantage over Europeans in reckoning their money, &c. But then, as they have no particular place

place set apart for the lesser denominations of coins, weights, measures, &c. their instrument cannot be used in Europe, nor can it be so universally applied to arithmetick as mine, for I have provided for the different divisions of an integer into parts.

This instrument hath the advantage of our digits in a great many cases. First, the figures can be felt, so may be used by a blind man. If it had no other, this alone would be sufficient to gain it the attention of mankind.

Another advantage from it is, that, when attained, this method is much swifter than by our digits, and less liable to mistakes: It is likewise not so burdensome to the memory in working the rules of arithmetick, as by our digits, we being obliged to carry the tens in the mind from one place to another, which are set down by the Shwan-pan. — One may work a whole night, without confusing the head, or affecting the eyes in the least.

It may be of great use to teach people the power of numbers, likewise to examine accounts by; for, as the person will, by the Shwan-pan, work it a quite different way, it will serve as if another person had gone thro' the account; if it proves right with the written one, they may rest assured the work is true.

It may be a very pretty lure to lead young people to apply their minds to numbers *.

An Account of the Locusts, which did vast Damage in Walachia, Moldavia, and Transilvania, in the Years 1747 and 1748; and of some Swarms of them, which, in the Months of July and August, 1748, came into Hungary and Poland; by a Gentleman who lives in Transilvania †.

IT is certain, that the locusts came into Transilvania from Walachia and Moldavia, and particularly thro' those narrow openings in the mountains, which are commonly called passes; the most considerable of which, in the neighbourhood of Clausen-burg, is called the pass of the Red Tower, and thro' others not far from Karlstat, which are common roads from Transilvania into Moldavia and Walachia.

The first swarms entered into Transilvania in August, 1747: These were succeeded by others, which were so surprisingly numerous, that when they reached the Red Tower, they were full four hours in their passage over that place; and they flew so close, that they made a sort of

noise in the air, by the beating of their wings against one another. The width of the swarm was some hundreds of fathoms, and its height or density may be easily imagined to be more considerable, inasmuch as they hid the sun, and darkened the sky, even to that degree, when they flew low, that people could not know one another at the distance of 20 paces. But whereas they were to fly over a river that runs in the vallies of the Red Tower, and could find neither resting-place nor food; being at length tired with their flight, one part of them lighted on the unripe corn on this side of the Red Tower, such as millet, Turkish wheat, &c. another part pitched on a low wood: Where having miserably wasted the produce of the land, they continued their journey, as if a signal had been actually given for a march. The guards of the Red Tower attempted to stop their irruption into Transilvania by firing at them; and indeed where the balls and shot swept thro' the swarm, they gave way and divided; but, having filled up their ranks in a moment, they proceeded on their journey.

They are of different forms, according to their different ages: For when, in the month of September, some troops of them were thrown to the ground by great rains, and other inclemency of the weather, and thoroughly soaked with wet, they crept along in quest of holes in the earth, dung, and straw; where, being sheltered from the rains, they laid a vast number of eggs, which stuck together by a viscid juice, and were longer and smaller than what is commonly called an ant's egg, very like grains of oats. The females, having laid there eggs, die like the silk-worm; and we Transilvanians found by experience, that that swarm which entered into our fields by the Red Tower, did not seem to intend remaining there, but were thrown to the ground by the force of the wind, and there laid their eggs; a vast number of which being turned up, and crushed by the plough in the beginning of the ensuing spring, yielded a yellowish juice.

FIn the spring of 1748, certain little blackish worms were seen lying in the fields and among the bushes, sticking together, and collected in clusters, not unlike the hillocks of moles or ants. As nobody knew what they were, so there was little or no notice taken of them; and in May they were covered by the shooting of the corn sown in the winter. But the subse-

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* The inventor produced one of these instruments before the society, and worked several questions in arithmetick upon it. It much resembles the Abacus of the ancients. C. M.

† See London Magazine for 1747, p. 417. And for 1748, p. 336, 379, 384, 407. With a figure of the creature, p. 342.

quent June discovered what those worms were ; for then, as the corn sown in the spring was pretty high, these creatures began to spread over the fields, and become destructive to the vegetables by their numbers. Then at length the country people, who had slighted the timely warning given them, began to repent of their negligence ; for, as these insects were now dispersed all over the fields, they could not be extirpated without injuring the corn.

At that time they differ little or nothing from our common grasshoppers ; having their head, sides, and back of a dark colour, with a yellow belly, and the rest of a reddish hue. About the middle of June, according as they were hatched sooner or later, they were generally a finger's length, or somewhat longer, but their shape and colour still continued.

Towards the end of June they cast off their outward covering ; and then it plainly appeared they had wings, very like the wings of bees, but as yet unripe and unexpanded ; and then their body was very tender, and of a yellowish green : Then in order to render themselves fit for flying, they gradually unfolded their wings with their hinder feet, as flies do. And as soon as any of them found themselves able to use their wings, they soared up, and, by flying round the others, provoked them to join them : And thus their numbers increasing daily, they took circular flights of 20 or 30 yards wide, until they were joined by the rest ; and, after miserably laying waste their native fields, they proceeded elsewhere in large troops.

Wheresoever those swarms happened to pitch, they spared no sort of vegetable ; they eat up the young corn, and the very grass ; but nothing is more dismal to behold than the lands in which they were hatched ; for they so greedily devoured every green thing thereon, before they could fly, that they left the ground quite bare.

There is nothing to be feared in those places to which this plague did not reach before the autumn ; for the locusts have not strength to fly to any considerable distance, but in July, August, and the beginning of September ; and even then, in changing the places of residence, they seem to tend to warmer climates.

Different methods are to be employed, according to the age and state of these insects ; for some will be effectual as soon as they are hatched ; others when they begin to crawl ; and others, in fine, when they are able to fly. And experience has taught us here in Transilvania, that it would have been of great service, to have diligently sought out the places where the females lodged ; for nothing was more easy, than carefully to visit those places in

March and April, and to destroy their eggs or little worms with sticks or briars ; or if they were not to be beat out of the bushes, dunghills, or heaps of straw, to set fire to them ; and this method would have been very speedy, convenient, and successful ; as it has been in other places. But in the summer, when they have marched out of their spring-quarters, and have invaded the corn-fields, &c. it is almost impossible to extirpate them, without thoroughly threshing the whole piece of land that harbours them, with sticks or flails, and thus crushing the locusts with the produce of the land.

Finally, when the corn is ripe, or nearly so, we have found, to our great loss, that there is no other method of getting rid of them, or even of diminishing their numbers, but to surround the piece of ground with a multitude of people, who might fright them away with bells, brass vessels, and all other sorts of noise. But even this method will not succeed, till the sun is pretty high, so as to dry the corn from the dew ; for otherwise they will either stick to the stalks, or lie hid under the grass. But when they happen to be driven to a waste piece of ground, they are to be beat with sticks or briars ; and if they gather together in heaps, straw or litter may be thrown over them, and set on fire. Now this method serves rather to lessen their numbers, than totally destroy them ; for many of them lurk under the grass or thick corn, and in the fissures of the ground, from the sun's heat : Wherefore it is requisite to repeat this operation several times, in order to diminish their numbers, and consequently the damage done by them. It will likewise be of use, where a large troop of them has pitched, to dig a long trench, of an ell in width and depth, and place several persons along its edges, provided with brooms, and such-like things, while another numerous set of people form a semicircle, that takes in both ends of the trench, and encompasses the locusts, and, by making the noise above-mentioned, drive them into the trench ; out of which if they attempt to escape, those on the edges are to sweep them back, and then crush them with their brooms and flakes, and bury them, by throwing in the earth again.

But when they have begun to fly, there should be horsemen upon the watch in the fields, who, upon any appearance of the swarm taking wing, should immediately alarm the neighbourhood by a certain signal, that they might come and fright them from their lands by all sorts of noise ; and if, tired with flying, they happen to pitch on a waste piece of land, it will be very easy

easy to kill them with sticks and brooms, in the evening, or early in the morning, while they are wet with the dew; or any time of the day in rainy weather; for then they are not able to fly.

I have already taken notice, that, if the weather be cold or wet in autumn, they generally hide themselves in secret places, where they lay their eggs, and then die: Wherefore great care should be taken at this time, when the ground is freed of its crop, to destroy them, before they lay their eggs.

In September, 1748, we received certain intelligence, that several swarms of locusts came out of Walachia into Transilvania thro' the usual inlets, and took possession of a tract of land in the neighbourhood of Clausberg, near three miles in length; where it was not possible to save the millet and Turkish wheat from these devourers.

I am of opinion, that no instances of this kind will occur in our history, except what some old men remember, and what we have experienced; at least there is no account, that any locusts came hither, which did not die before they laid their eggs; however, this is a known fact, that, about 40 years ago, some swarms came hither out of Walachia, and did vast damage where-ever they settled; but either left this country before the end of summer, or died by the inclemency of the weather.

Perhaps better remedies may be had from other countries, where this evil is more common, against next spring; for the winter season is very safe from this plague.—Here ends the gentleman's account, after which are the following remarks.

The gentleman, to whom the foregoing account was sent from Transilvania to Vienna, and who transmitted it hither, has also informed us, that a considerable number of these locusts had also come within 20 leagues of that city; and that one column of them had been seen there, which was about half an hour's journey in breadth; but of such a length, that, after three hours, tho' they seemed to fly fast, one could not yet see the end of the column. The eggs of these animals, which have been preserved in dry mould, have produced nothing; but those that have been preserved in mould that was moistened with water from time to time, gave early in the spring of 1749, some of these grasshoppers. The little ones were, soon after they came forth, of the size nearly of ordinary flies: They had already the form of grasshoppers, but they had as yet no wings. This observation shews, that the author of the foregoing account was

mistaken, when he says, "These insects had at first the form of grubs, or small worms." They change their skin several times, but they do not acquire wings till they have changed for the last time.

The grasshoppers that were taken in England in 1748, have been compared with those that have been sent over from Hungary and from Poland that same year, and they have been found to be perfectly of the same kind. There are in Sir Hans Sloane's collection some of the same sort of locusts or grasshoppers preserved in spirits of wine, and which were taken up here above 30 years since, and are exactly like those from Egypt and Barbary.

The Case of Mr. Smith, Surgeon, at Sudbury, in Suffolk; the Coats of whose Stomach were changed into an almost cartilaginous Substance.

HE was in the vigorous time of life, being no more than 36 years of age, and, to all appearance, of a strong well-set habit. His way of living was quite regular; but his practice of midwifery, which was pretty large, often forced him in severe weather from a warm bed into bad roads, and sometimes into raw uncomfortable houses.

He had for several years complained of uneasiness at his stomach, but it was not considerable till about Jan. 1746-7. From that time he almost constantly threw up his food within an hour or two after taking it, and he felt violent pain about the scrobiculus cordis. Divers physicians were advised with, but medicines availed him nothing; nor had he any ease, except from opiates, or spirituous liquors; and this was of short continuance.

It being, in the September following, recommended to him to go to Bath, he for some weeks drank the waters, and afterwards bathed. The first had no remarkable effect, but he found himself worse after bathing. Upon his return home, new physicians were consulted, and new methods were tried, but to no purpose; and, to make life tolerable, he was forced to be very free in the use of spirituous liquors and opiates.

In Feb. 1747-8, he voided, by two or three stools, about a couple of ounces of matter. Some weeks before his death the pains went off, and his vomiting was at times stayed; but whenever that happened, whatever he took ran directly thro' him. And indeed he was now and then, during the whole illness, subject to bilious dejections.

On this remission of the symptoms, his friends flattered themselves yet that all might do well; but his wasting, which had

had long began, continued; and his legs, especially one of them, became oedematous. After growing gradually weaker, till nature was quite spent, he expired, with the utmost serenity of mind, in the evening of August 7.

His body being, pursuant to his request, opened in the presence of Dr. Scarling, A and three or four surgeons, the coats of the stomach were found changed into an uniform, white, inelastic, almost cartilaginous substance, which was four tenths of an inch in thickness. Besides this strange alteration in its coats, the stomach was so contracted, as to be incapable of holding more than five or six ounces; and its inner surface was besmeared with a various coloured matter. The rest of the viscera seemed to be quite unaffected, and every thing was in its natural situation, except the omentum, which, besides being, as it is in all tabid bodies, vastly wasted, was necessarily drawn upwards by the contraction of the stomach.

Remarks on the Case, by the Gentleman who sent it.

It is highly probable, that this gentleman's disorder, whether constitutional or acquired, was at first an obstruction in those glands, which separate the humour that serves to defend the villous coat from the acrimony of what is taken into the stomach, and to prevent its being stimulated by the aliment in digestion; for want of which it was so subject to irritation, that scarce any thing would stay upon it. The matter voided by stool was undoubtedly formed in the stomach, because he never complained of considerable pain in any other part; besides, had it been from an abscess in the intestines, or any other of the viscera, the seat of it would in all likelihood have been apparent. The looseness, which, in the latter part of his illness, always attended him when the vomiting ceased, plainly shews, that the stomach had at that time acquired a great, if not its greatest, degree of contraction; for which reason, as it could contain but little, any quantity of food must, if not thrown up, go immediately downwards. The going off of the pain some weeks before his death, was owing to the sensibility of the coats of the stomach being in a great measure, or quite destroyed. The bilious dejections that frequently attended him, may be ascribed to want of digestion; which, as little or no chyle was sent into the duodenum, rendered the bile useless. The consequence of this was a non-secretion of that humour, an accumulation of it in the liver, or gall-bladder, its being reconveyed into the blood, or its going off by

stool. If the first or third had been the case, it would have shewn itself in a jaundice; if the second, there would have been an abscess in the liver or gall-bladder; so that of course it must run off by stool. Spirituous liquors might help to bring on this contraction, inelasticity, and insensibility of the stomach: But it seems pretty clear, that they were not the sole cause, else immoderate drinkers of them would generally be affected in the same manner.

The other Articles contained in this Number, are as follow.

- I. **A**N account of glasses of a new contrivance, for preserving pieces of anatomy or natural history in spirituous liquors.
- II. *Observationes aliquæ astronomicæ à reverendo P. P. Suarez è S. J. in Paraguaría habitæ, et per D. Suarez M. D. cum Soc. Regali communicatæ.*
- III. *Observatio eclipsis solaris Julii 14, et lunæ Julii 28, 1748. Madirti habitæ.*
- IV. Extract of a letter from Benj. Heath, Esq; to Peter Davall, Esq; Secr. R. S. inclosing a proposal for intirely removing the only real defect in the lateral operation for the stone.
- V. A letter from Mr. Henry Baker, F.R.S. to the president, concerning some vertebæ of ammonitæ, or cornua ammonis.
- VI. A catalogue of the fifty plants from Chelsea-garden, presented to the Royal Society by the company of apothecaries, for the year 1746.
- VII. The Rev. Mr. Robert Clarke, to Mr. Fleming, concerning a boy, who had a calculus formed between the glans and the præputium.
- VIII. The establishment of a new genus of plants, called *Salvadora*, with its description.
- IX. A state of the English weights and measures of capacity, as they appear from the laws as well ancient as modern; with some considerations thereon.
- X. A letter from Dr. le Cat, F. R. S. to C. Mortimer, M. D. Secret. R. S. concerning the cure of dry gangrenes, &c.

Conclusion of the WHIMSICAL PHILOSOPHER, Dissert. V. That Dominion does not follow Property, but the Sword, with a Proposal for restoring a warlike Spirit and military Discipline to the People in general. (See p. 556.)

AFTER this account of the present generation, and I believe every one will admit it is too generally true, can we expect that the people should have any warlike spirit or military discipline among them?

them? Can we expect they should have any regard for their landlords, or for any great family in their neighbourhood? Can we in short expect, that a lord or commoner, let his land estate be what it will, should have any power? A minister of state, a general, a lord-lieutenant, or sheriff, may have power; but it is not his power, it is the power of the state, the exercise whereof is committed to him for a time, and may be taken from him when the sovereign pleases. Nay, he has not, properly speaking, a power over the rents of his estate; for by an unjust government, he may be turned out of the receipt, without his being able to make any opposition. It was not so with our ancient barons: They could make opposition, and did often raise armies for that purpose. But so powerless are our great men now become, that one of the greatest subjects, and one of the most popular men in the kingdom, was some years since forced to fly his country, because, as he said himself, he could not raise men enough to defend him against a regiment of dragoons.

I do not mention this with any design to justify that nobleman: I mention it only to shew how much the people are changed from what they were, even in the days of Q. Elizabeth; for even in her reign, as wise and just a one as perhaps we ever had, a private gentleman, Leonard Dacres by name, got together a body of 3000 men, for espousing his private quarrel against the government, and with them fought a battle against the queen's troops, with doubtful success, but at last was overcome.

From what I have said, the reader may perhaps suppose, that I am for restoring the ancient power of the barons, or that sort of constitution which was introduced by William the Conqueror, who gave such a number of manors to his chief followers, and vested them with such great powers, in order to enable them to keep the people he had conquered in subjection, that it was for ages afterwards very difficult to hold them in subjection to the crown. This, I confess, I should be for, if I thought that no other method could be found for preserving a true warlike spirit and military discipline among the people; but as no state can ever be at peace, or exert its strength against a foreign enemy, when a few of the subjects are invested with so much power, that two or three of them combining together, or confederating with a foreign enemy, may bid defiance to the power of the state, which is now the case both in Germany and Poland; and as, I think, another method may be found for attaining the end I pro-

pose, therefore I am against investing any subject with so much power as our great barons anciently had.

But before I offer what I think proper for this purpose, I must consider a maxim laid down by Mr. Harrington, to wit, *That dominion or empire always follows property.* I shall grant it ought to do so, and will do so, as long as the men of property keep the sword in their own hands; but if, like the French colony in America, they grow tired of carrying their arms, and give them to be carried by their slaves, those slaves will turn their arms against them, and by that means change conditions with them. Thus it has fared with the men of property in most countries of Europe: To free themselves from the trouble and danger of defending their property, and that they might indulge themselves in ease and sensual pleasure, they furnished their prince with money to hire mercenary soldiers, by which means they are become the slaves of their prince and his mercenary army, and have really no more property than what the latter please to allow them; for can any man be said to have a property in his estate, when his prince can impose, and by means of his army make him pay to him what tax or tribute he pleases?

It is therefore so far from being true, that dominion always follows property, that both property and dominion always follow the sword; and slavery will always be the lot of those, who neither have arms, nor courage or skill to make use of them, if they had. The king of France is virtually as much master of all the lands in his dominion as the Grand Signior, and the subjects of France are as much slaves as the subjects of Turkey. The only difference is, that the government of France has more wisdom, and is founded upon better maxims, than that of Turkey; for the most absolute monarchy that ever was, or can be, if it be wise, will propagate, as much as possible, a belief among its slaves, that they are secure in their property; because the more secure they think themselves in their property, the more industrious they will be to improve and increase it; and the more they improve or increase their property, the more they will be able to contribute or pay to their masters, the king and his army; for in such governments the king, and the leaders of his mercenary army, never consider what the people are willing, but what they are able to pay; whereas the governors of a free, brave, and warlike people, where there is no mercenary army, or not such a one as can master the people, must consider what the people are willing to

to pay, and can desire no more of any man's property by way of tax or imposition, than what they shew to be requisite for supporting the necessary publick expence.

I know it may be said, that what has of late happened in this country is a proof, that dominion does not always follow the sword; because we have long had a mercenary army kept up, and I have myself shewn, that the people have now no warlike spirit or military discipline among them, yet the freedom of our government is still preserved, nor has the military so much as attempted to assume dominion, nor is it probable they ever will, as long as they are kept up but from year to year, and commanded mostly by gentlemen of family and fortune.

As to what they have done, I must first answer, that till the year 1716, we never had in time of peace such a numerous army as could assume dominion, or alter the form of our government; and since that time they have had no occasion to do so; for no prince or general will desire to alter our form of government, as long as the parliament gives him every thing he asks, and does nothing he has cause to find fault with. Besides, an army of natives must be kept up for a long time, and much practised on, before even the common soldiers will consent to be instrumental in overturning the liberties of their country. We are not therefore to judge what the army may do from what they have done, nor can we fear any thing from them, until they have a prince or general at their head, who is resolved to have or do something, that a parliament legally chosen will not consent to.

But if this should ever happen, the prince or general will resolve to have such a parliament returned by undue methods as will consent to what he proposes, or he will dissolve the parliament, and establish in its stead a council of officers. In the first case, I make not the least doubt but that the army would support him and his illegal parliament against the resentment of the people; nor do I less doubt but that such a parliament would pass such laws as might enable him to have always such parliaments for the future. And even in the last case, if the common soldiers should generally resolve to stand by their prince or general, I am afraid, we should find little benefit from the army's having been kept up from year to year, by consent of parliament, or from it being commanded by men of family and fortune; for it would be presently given out, that the parliament which refused to continue the army, or brought on its own dissolution, was composed either of jacobites or republicans: Every officer who resigned

would be deemed by the other officers and soldiers a jacobite or republican; and as such officers could expect no protection from an unarmed, undisciplined people, I believe, very few would risk the consequences, especially as it is a received rule in the army, that no officer can resign his commission without the leave of his sovereign.

Therefore, if any future king, or even a favourite general of our army, should resolve to abolish our civil, and establish a military government, we have, I think, nothing to trust to but the virtue of the common soldiers of our army; and as they are men of no property, and generally allowed to be none of the best sort of men in the kingdom, I much suspect they would do as the slaves of the French colony before mentioned did, they would turn against us those arms we had put into their hands for our ease, and from being our servants, would become our masters.

Can we prevent this by the establishment of a militia? I am sure we cannot by any scheme for that purpose, that has been hitherto brought into parliament. By them it has been generally proposed, to keep up a certain number of militia to be composed of men of the lowest rank, and commanded by such gentlemen in each county as the king should appoint. This is still trusting the sword in the hands of men of no property, and leaving the men of property, as they are now, quite destitute of any sort of warlike spirit or military discipline, which would rather increase than prevent the danger; because if our army should set up against our civil government, most of our militia soldiers, and perhaps many of their officers, would join the army, for the sake of entering into immediate pay.

Could we expect any more certain security from the law lately proposed in parliament, for limiting the time of a soldier's being obliged to serve in the army? none at all; because it is attended with the same danger in every respect. In short, all such schemes, are schemes against nature. It is putting empire in the hands of one set of men, and the sword in the hands of another; whereas, from the nature of things it is impossible, that these two should long continue separate. In Venice they have continued separate longer than they ever did in any country in the world; but this proceeds from their seat of government's being unapproachable by their army; from the few wars they have had, and their little success in any of them; from their employing always a foreigner for their general in chief; and from several other causes too tedious to mention.

There

There is no other possible way of preserving the liberties of any country, but by keeping the sword of the society chiefly in the hands of the men of property in that society: That is to say, by having all the men of property indued with a warlike spirit, provided with proper arms, and bred up from their youth to all sorts of military discipline and exercises. By the men of property I mean not only our nobility and gentry, but also our farmers, merchants, shopkeepers, and master-trademen, and the sons of all such men; and the most effectual way to succeed in this, is to allow none but such men any share in our government.

This is agreeable to our antient Saxon constitution; for according to that constitution all freeholders, and freemen of any city or borough, were obliged to breed themselves soldiers, and to provide themselves with proper arms, so as to be always in readiness to march for the defence of their country; and none but such were allowed to vote at elections, or to have any other share in our government. Indeed, it is ridiculous to allow any man a share in the government of a country, which he is unwilling or thro' neglect incapable of assisting to defend.

For this reason a militia should be established under proper regulations; and that militia to consist of none but men of property, or the sons of men of property; all of whom should be obliged to attend the exercise in person, and not by porters, chairmen, or any low fellow they can pick up in the streets, as our housekeepers do now.

Then it should be provided, that no man should have a vote at any election, or be capable of being chosen a member of parliament, or of voting in the other house, or enjoying any place of trust, profit, or honour under the government, unless he was of the militia, or had served 20 years in the militia; and to prevent indolent, selfish men from indulging their ease, by a neglect of those duties they owe to their country, all men of property above 21 years of age, that did not enter themselves of the militia, and duly attend the service of it for 20 years, should be obliged to pay double taxes of all kinds, both to the publick and the parish.

I could mention many subordinate regulations, which would be necessary for rendering this scheme compleat; but these are the out-lines of a scheme, which, if nicely finished, and connected with what I have proposed for propagating a true publick spirit among the people*, would secure the freedom of our government to

Appendix, 1750.

the end of time, by preserving for ever the virtue and martial spirit of the people. Every man of property would then be ready to serve his country, not from avarice but from virtue, not for the sake of any mercenary reward he might enjoy or expect, but for the sake of that glory and esteem he would thereby acquire; and every man of property, not prevented by some natural defect in his body, would be not only a well disciplined, but a willing and brave soldier. Could we then have any thing to fear from a French invasion, or from any of the mercenary armies kept up upon the continent, even supposing them masters at sea, which would hardly be possible? In a few days, we might by proper signals assemble an army of 40 or 50,000 men upon any part of our coast; and with such an army, provided with something more of defensive armour than is now in use, I should not fear to encounter 100,000 French mercenaries; for freemen, who have property to defend, and fight for defending not only that property, but the honour of their wives, daughters, and sweet-hearts, as well as their own honour and liberty, will always fight with more fury and more obstinacy, than slaves who fight only for enriching their tyrannical masters.

Both these schemes for restoring virtue and a warlike spirit to the people in general, will, I doubt not, be called whimsical by the selfish, the corrupt, and the cowardly amongst us; but however whimsical they may appear to such men, I am fully convinced, that they must both be embraced and properly established, otherwise we shall lose even the shadow of liberty; or, whilst we are contending for that shadow, and dissipating the publick money in jobs, perquisites, salaries, and pensions, to the luxurious or avaritious rich men among us, our commerce, navigation, trade and manufactures, and at last the nation itself, will become a prey to the French: And whether our men of property will expose their country to this, or themselves to the trouble of serving their country as soldiers and magistrates for nothing, let them consider before it is too late.

Conclusion of the Abstract of Mr. Toll's Remarks on Dr. Stebbing. (See p. 562.)

SPEAKING of the affair of healing by the royal touch, he goes on thus. When an instance, wherein all these particulars concur, is certified to me by some person of unquestionable credit and veracity, who was a witness to the whole process, then, and not till then, I drop my pen, and am silent. Nor can it be thought

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strange

* See before, p. 82.

strange that the exactest proof should on this occasion be demanded, when the most authentick relations we have left us of the matter, are filled with such a variety of nonsense as is enough to make one sick. For first, the most strenuous advocates of this power do not know where to fix it; like the pope's infallibility, sometimes it is in one place, sometimes in another, and sometimes, as it were, divided betwixt two. At one time the doctrine was, that it followed the unction. Now comes Mr. Carte, and tells us, it does not follow the unction, and produces Ch. Lovel as an instance of it. Then, as to the healing; sometimes the patient was quite cured, sometimes half cured, and sometimes not cured at all. There is a story in the Philosophical Transactions, No. 256. of a woman, who, being troubled with the king's evil, was sent to London to be stroaked, in Charles the II'd's time, but was never the better; yet Greatrakes, the Irish stroaker, perfectly cured her. Sometimes the cure was a vast while about, and sometimes after being compleated, the humours soon broke out afresh.—There is also a great deal of stuff about the piece of gold; if this happened by any accident to be lost, the distemper immediately returned, and as soon retired again upon its being found. Some instances are related of persons who, tho' never touched themselves, were perfectly cured by only borrowing the gold of a neighbour who had been touched. In such infinite confusion, what is to be depended on?

Thus I have ventured to lay down a rule for distinguishing between miracles that are to be received as true, and miracles that may reasonably be doubted, and am of opinion it will bring the present controversy to a short issue. For experiment, let us apply it to the two cases under consideration, the miracles of the gospel age, and those of after times. We shall perceive that it will confirm and establish the one, and set us free from the necessity of enlarging our creed with the other. Whoever but casts his eye into the gospel histories, will there find a great number of facts so minutely and circumstantially described, by those who declare themselves to have been eye-witnesses of those facts, that, supposing them to have been written by the persons whose names they bear, and to be conveyed down to us in the manner they were written, (which is at present not the question) no man who is willing to be determined by evidence, can entertain the least doubt of their truth and reality. If we apply the rule to the other case, and examine the accounts left us by the fathers, of after-miracles, we

find nothing of this nature. Not one of the writers for the first 300 years, (the period chiefly insisted upon) not one of these writers, I say, upon whose authority the matter solely depends, pretend to any such certain and infallible evidence. We except the case of the Smyranean letter, where the credit that would naturally be due to the attestation, we suppose to be entirely set aside by the improbability of the things attested. In a case attended with such circumstances, we think a man may honestly refuse to trust any body's senses but his own. There is no other instance, as I remember, wherein the warmest of their advocatss say, they have affirmed the reality of a miracle upon their own knowledge.—As to the genuineness of their accounts, I see no reason to suspect but that they are come down to us in as uncorrupted a manner, as the scriptures themselves; so far therefore we admit of an equality: The difference lies here; the authors of the gospel-history have positively declared themselves eye-witnesses of the facts they relate, the others have declared no such thing; a ground of distinction that will eternally subsist, and eternally defy the utmost efforts of the most subtle objectors.—Upon this spot I fix my foot; and now no doubt but we shall be able to maintain the ground against the whole herd of unbelievers of every denomination. Let them make the most of the notice here given them; they are welcome to extract what advantage out of it they can: It happens that I am not under so great apprehensions from that quarter as Dr. Stebbing seems to be; I have at present the utmost contempt for their objections, and shall trouble my head no farther about them, till I see something from their hands that may deserve a serious examination.

After all, supposing (not granting) that these gentlemen have a small matter the better of the argument, that victory rather inclines to their side, in short, that they have made it something more probable, that there were miracles after the times of the apostles, than that there were not: What does all this amount to? Will this justify the stress that has been laid upon it? 'Tis well known, that some of our ablest divines think it a question of little or no moment. Why then is it pressed upon us, as of that certainty, and of that consequence, as tho' a man could hardly be a christian without believing it?—The foundations are sappling.—The faith of all history must go along with it.—Ridiculous outcry! Be it known, there are those who will undertake to defend christianity better without these miracles, than most of the worthies

worthies who run away with this nonsense, are able to do with them.

Having now finished what I had to say, I only beg leave to interpose one word of caution, that my meaning may not be mistaken. What I do really mean upon this subject, I am neither afraid nor ashamed to declare to all mankind; at the same time I am not at all desirous of being thought to mean any thing that I do not. Be it observed then, that I have no where positively laid down, that no miracle was ever wrought after the days of the apostles. This would be going farther than reason will bear a man out. A negative proposition must not be handled so ungently: To affirm it peremptorily requires a degree of confidence I am not yet arrived at. The utmost I would be understood to say is this, that from all I have met with, professedly written against the Free Inquiry, no clear evidence comes out, that there was. The arguments of Dr. Middleton are to me of more force towards inducing a suspicion that no miraculous powers were continued to the church, than the reasoning of all his opposers to create any thing like a firm belief of the contrary.

As to those who have been used to look upon the gospel miracles, and the product of succeeding ages, in the same light, as so connected and linked together by a sameness in the foundation, that the destruction of one must necessarily draw after it that of the other, I trust they will now in some measure be satisfied, that there is a specific difference discoverable between them; that the one may be considered apart and distinctly from the other; that the former may be soundly and rationally defended, whilst we yield up the latter as the uncontested property, nay, as the very food and subsistence of Papists.

The author concludes with some remarks, to shew, that what he has offered concerning the proper evidence of a miracle, does not at all interfere with Mr. Warburton's argument upon Julian's attempt to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem. (See p. 212.)

"That Divine Providence, says he, should interpose to defeat a scheme projected in manifest defiance of Jesus Christ, and to give him the lye, is in itself the most probable thing in the world; nay, we may go so far as to say, it was really concerned to interpose in vindication of its own authority; and if so, why not by those means which are said to have been employed in it, as well as by any other that can be imagined? That the design was begun, and not executed, were facts of publick notoriety; and when an heathen writer, who lived at the time, tells us the stop was occasioned by the sudden eruption of fires

from the foundation, no reason can be given why we should not take his word for it. He does not relate it as a miracle, (this a pagan could not do, his account therefore the less suspicious) but gives a bare matter of fact, as a reason of the emperor's desisting from the enterprize. Which being sufficiently ascertained, the only remaining question is, whether these fires can be supposed to have proceeded from natural causes? Against which we may venture to affirm, there is the odds of several millions to an unit."

New Regulations relating to the Bank of St. George at Genoa.

ALL the world sufficiently knows the constant punctuality with which, for several ages, the Bank of St. George has always paid its notes; and the misfortunes which happened to it towards the latter end of the year 1746, are equally known*. The capital, and all the dominions of the most serene republick, being at that time in the most unhappy crisis, the government was forced, in order to save the Bank from greater misfortunes, to lay, for the first time since its institution, hands upon this sacred deposit, by drawing out of it the sum of 15 millions of livres. Every body must be sensible of the absolute necessity this laid the state under of stopping the payment of the Bank bills, which till this time had been immediately paid by the treasurer to the bearer.

The continuation of a most expensive war, and the immense losses sustained by the subjects of the republick, have prevented, till now, the making use of the proper means to indemnify the Bank; for which reason its notes have been of no use, either in the course of exchange, or in the payment of debts; having had only an arbitrary value put upon them.

The protectors of the house of St. George, and the deputies of the most serene republick, being equally solicitous to put an end to so great an inconvenience, and to give, in this most singular case, proofs of their publick faith, as far as the present circumstances render it practicable, have, in order to re-establish the ancient splendor and credit of the Bank, which has been so useful both to the subjects of this dominion, and to all trading nations, determined, that in a very short time all the old bills and notes of the Bank of St. George shall be united, and constitute a new fund, to be called *Conservazione*, and to be divided into so many actions or shares of 200 livres each, Bank money. [Note, The value of a Genoese livre, Bank money, is the same as the present French livre.] Which actions shall, every

year, in certain portions, be publickly drawn by lot, and paid by the treasurer according to their just value of 200 effective livres, Bank money.

The most serene republick has assigned to the house of St. George, for a fund of this new stock, the new duties laid for that purpose, and has put them under the free administration and absolute power of the said house. These duties are one sol and four deniers a pound upon the salt consumed in Genoa, and the two Revieras; one sol and eight deniers a pound upon flesh meat; the same sum that is now paid per pound upon cocoa nuts, and all sorts of sugars, and half as much more as wax now pays; and 50 sols more for each measure of wine (about half a hog-head) coming by land, and to be extended to all the places subject to the duty upon wine: And, besides these duties, the said republick has assigned the product of a general tax of two per thousand upon all the goods and estates of the citizens and inhabitants in the city of Genoa and its districts, and of one and an half on all the goods and estates of the ecclesiasticks, according to the pope's grant obtained to this effect.

And, in order to make this sinking fund more considerable, the house of St. George is to pay out of its old income, half the interest settled upon the actions of the new stock, till its entire extinction. This interest, which is to be allowed to the proprietors till every one is fully satisfied, will never be less than three livres, Bank money, for each share; and the shares shall have, besides, the privilege of being lent for a security to the farmers and managers of the publick revenue, according to the will of the proprietors, in the same manner as the old stock of St. George, and others situated in the most serene dominions, that the proprietors may reap the benefit of the usual premium of those securities.

The sums of money, which those people who are desirous of interesting themselves in this affair, shall hereafter bring, as well as those heretofore lodged in the Bank, shall, for the convenience of commerce, and the liquidation of debts contracted, be entered into the books of St. George. The notes for these respective sums shall be punctually paid by the treasurer, and shall partake of the usual privileges; but to take away all shadow of distrust, and to make it evident, that, let what will happen, the payment thereof will infallibly be made, the great council of St. George did the 11th of Dec. inst. by an authentick instrument, make over and secure all the ancient income of the

stock of St. George to both the old and the new proprietors, in such a manner, that if by any accident that may arise from superior force, a defensive war, or any other event, the least delay should be made by the treasurer in the payment to the bearer of the notes and bills, the proprietors may, by the authority which in this case the protectors have given them, take full possession of all the customs, duties, rents, and goods of all sorts belonging to the Bank of St. George, and dispose of them, till they are fully reimbursed the value of the bills, which should not have been punctually paid by the treasurer of St. George.

By these new regulations, every one may easily observe the good faith, both of the most serene republick, and of the most illustrious house of St. George, and the great care to indemnify, by all means, the creditors of the old as well as new notes, the payment whereof was stoppt by the great misfortunes which happened in Sept. 1746; and people may at the same time comprehend the regularity, with which this same Bank fulfils its engagements: A Bank, which was the first of its kind in Europe, and which has served as a pattern to others, that in after-ages have been introduced in other states and kingdoms.

It has now, besides its ancient privileges, got new ones, and securities, under the guaranty of a house, which enjoys, under her free and independent administration, such solid funds, by means of which this Bank has reason to flatter itself, that it may contribute to the advantage of commerce with still more efficacy, than it has done in the time when it most distinguished itself by its utility.

Genoa, Dec. 12, 1750.

To the AUTHOR, &c.

*Cervus equum pugna melior communibus verbis
Pellebat, donec minor in certamine longo
Imploravit opes hominis, frænumque recepit.
Sed postquam victor violens discessit ab bestie,
Non equitem dorso, non frænum depulit ore.*
Hor. Epist. 10.

S I R,

WHEN I consider what a dismal scene of blood and desolation hath appeared upon the theatre of Europe, during the growth and progress of the French power, I cannot sufficiently applaud and admire our happy situation, whilst other nations have been miserably harrassed by perpetual war: For lying open to continual invasion, they can never enjoy quiet and security, nor take a sound sleep, but Hercules-like, with clubs in their hands: So that these Halcyon days, which we enjoyed

joyed amidst such an universal hurricane, must be solely attributed to our tutelar god Neptune, who with a guard of winged coursers, so strongly intrenches us, that we may be said to be *mediâ inseparabilis undâ*, and not unfily compared to the earth which stands fixed and immoveable, and never to be shaken but by an internal convulsion. And as nature has been thus liberal to us in our situation, so the luxuriance of our soil makes it productive of numerous commodities, fit for trade and commerce. And as this trade renders us masters of the silver and gold of the East and West, without our toiling in the mine, so it breeds us multitudes of able bodied and skilful seamen, to defend the treasures they bring home, that even luxury itself, which has been the bane and destruction of most countries, where it has been predominant, may in this sense be esteemed our preservation, by breeding up a race of men among us, whose manner of life will never suffer them to be debauched, or enervated with ease and idleness. But we have one thing more to boast of besides all these felicities, that is, of being freemen and not slaves, when an universal deluge of tyranny has overspread the face of the whole earth; so that this is the ark, out of which if the dove be sent forth, she will find no resting-place till her return. Our constitution is a limited mixed monarchy, where the king enjoys all the prerogatives necessary to the support of his dignity and protection of his people; and he is only abridged from the power of injuring his own subjects. In short, the man is loose, but the beast is bound, and our government may truly be called an empire of laws, and not of men; for every man has the same right to what he can acquire by his labour and industry, as the king has to his crown, and the meanest subject hath his remedy against him in his courts at Westminster; no man can be imprisoned unless he has transgressed a law of his own making, nor be tried, but by his own neighbours; so that we enjoy a liberty scarce known to the ancient Greeks and Romans. And lest the extraordinary power granted to the crown, should lean towards arbitrary government, or the tumultuous licentiousness of the people should incline towards a democracy, the wisdom of our ancestors hath instituted a middle state, viz. of nobility, whose interest it is to trim this boat of the commonwealth, and to screen the people against the insults of the prince, and the prince against the popularity of the commons; since, if either extream prevail so far as to oppress the other, they are sure to be overwhelmed in their ruin; and the meeting of these

three states in parliament, is what we call our government; for without all their consents no law can be made, nor a penny levied upon the subjects: This is the grand inquest of the kingdom, where the people may and ought to speak their grievances, and call to account overgrown criminals, who are above the reach of ordinary justice; so that whilst we can continue in our present happy condition, we may without vanity reckon ourselves the happiest people in the world. Whether we are indebted for these great blessings, more to the accident of our happy situation, or our own wisdom, integrity, and courage, I will not pretend to determine; when we see most nations in Europe over-run with oppression and slavery, where the lives, estates, and liberties of the people, are subject to the lawless fancy and ambition of the prince, and the rapine and insolence of his officers, where the nobility, that were formerly the bold asserters of their country's liberty, are now only the ensigns and ornaments of the tyranny, and the people beasts of burden, and barely kept alive to support the luxury and prodigality of their masters.

To the AUTHOR of the LONDON MAGAZINE.

S I R,

INTEREST as well as curiosity ought to lead the people of every country into an examination of what foreigners say of them, because it enables them to discover, and consequently to correct their failings and improve their virtues; and as a book has been lately published at Paris, intitled, The general, civil, natural, political, and religious history of all nations, wrote by the famous Abbé Lambert, what he says of the religions in England (however mistakenly in some points) will not, I fancy, be disagreeable to any, and may be useful to most of our readers.

The reformation, as it is called, says Mons. l'Abbé, was first introduced in England, during the 16th century. Their king Henry VIII. who declared himself head of the church in England, demolished all the monasteries in his kingdom, and disposed of their revenues. They retained all the external parts of the old religion, all that pomp of ceremonies, and the ecclesiastical hierarchy. Those who thought, that episcopacy was not by divine authority, formed a separate church, and were called Presbyterians. But beside these, there are in England a great number of other sects.

Those they call Independants will not allow of any subordination in the church: They

They believe that every parish is in itself a compleat church, and such a one as may make for itself whatever regulations it pleases, without dependence upon any superior: They place the power of chusing their minister in the whole body of the parish, and they instal him in his ministry without imposition of hands. But liberty of conscience is their first principle; and they insist that all praying ought to be extemporary, according as every one is inspired.

The Anabaptists agree with the Independants in every thing, except with regard to baptism, which, they say, ought not to be administered to any but such as are come to the age of discretion; and they never administer it to any under the age of 16 complete. With the Independants they believe, that the supreme authority ought to be lodged in the people; and that there is no form of government so good as that of a democracy.

The Millenarians, of whom there is but a small number, believe, that before the end of the world the christian religion will be spread over the whole earth, and that it will by every one be professed in its purity, and with an entire liberty of conscience. During the last civil wars in that kingdom, they contended, that all the kingdoms on earth belonged to the saints, and that they ought to take into their hands the government of them, in order to exterminate the wicked, and to establish the reign of Jesus Christ, which ought to be called the fifth monarchy.

The Quakers are reckoned to be about 40,000 in England, but almost all persons of low rank. They dress in a plain manner, salute no body, and never lift their hat, not even when the king passes. One of their principal maxims is to undertake nothing, without the direction of some particular inspiration, which, they say, comes from the Holy Ghost, for which reason they have no appointed hour either for prayer, or any of their other exercises. They have no minister, nor any person appointed, to explain to them the word of God. When they assemble in their meeting-houses, they fall into deep contemplation, continue in a modest posture, and keep a profound silence, till some one among them feels himself inspired to preach; then the first who is moved by the spirit, be it man or woman, mounts the pulpit, and makes an exhortation, or recites some prayer, and so successively. When all have finished, they separate, without saying any thing to one another, because, say they, they do not find themselves moved by the spirit to converse. They take all scripture terms in an allegorical sense, even those which speak of the Trinity, and of the incarna-

tion, death, passion, and resurrection of our Lord. They have not now-a-days those ecstasick fits which made them run up and down the streets like madmen; and they are become more sociable.

They have a grave and melancholy countenance; they find fault with every thing, and despise those that are not of their sect; they hate war and law-suits, and do not even defend themselves when they are attacked; if they are persecuted, if their meetings are forbid, they nevertheless continue them, without giving themselves any concern about the consequences. When they know that the officers are about coming to their meetings, in order to seize and imprison them, they do not think of taking any method to secure themselves, but resolutely wait for them: Even when they are thrown into prison, they remain there without once petitioning for being discharged. If a guard of soldiers be posted in their meeting-house, they notwithstanding assemble there, or in the street next to it, by which means the magistrates are grown tired of persecuting them, and therefore disturb them no more. The Quakers are an ignorant sort of people, and without any kind of literature; but they are for the most part rich, because they attach themselves to their profession with great application, whether it be to traffick, or to any mechanical art they have learned.

These are the principal sects in England; but besides, there are Pre-Adamites, Seventh-day men, and Methodists, tho' none of them are properly formed into one distinct body; therefore it may be said, that, except those who are of one or other of these prevailing religions, all the rest have every one formed to himself a religion according to his own fancy.

This, Sir, is the account the French Abbé gives of the religions in England; and if he had been well acquainted with the country, he would perhaps have said, that those of the last sort of religion he mentions, are by far the most numerous. Indeed, I believe, it is so in every country, tho' it does not appear so much in any country as in England, because we have the happiness of more freedom to declare our sentiments about religion and politicks, than the people of any other country enjoy.

I am, &c.

The following is so remarkable a Case, and such an Instance of the natural Dread of Death, that we could not forbear inserting it.

Extract of a Letter from Edinburgh, Dec. 20.

JOHN Young, late serjeant in lord Anstruther's regiment of foot, was executed here

here yesterday afternoon, pursuant to the sentence of the high court of judicary, pronounced against him on a remit made to that court by the lords of session; before whom a full proof was deduced of Young's having vended false notes of the Royal Bank of Scotland, knowing them to be forged and fabricated.

This unhappy man had amused himself, before trial, with the hopes of being acquitted; and, after sentence, with those of obtaining a pardon; for which great interest was used by the officers of the army, &c. tho' all to no purpose; the hurt done to publick credit by such destructive practices, rendering it necessary that an example should be made to deter others from committing the like in time coming. Indeed this unfortunate man complained bitterly of his hard fate, in being made the only sacrifice to justice, while two others, rather more culpable than he, they being the very engravers and fabricators of the notes, found means to save themselves by immediately turning evidences against him, who did not scruple to accuse them of perjury, tho' with what truth I cannot determine.

Young, however, on the day, nay, at the very time of execution, betook himself to a very unusual expedient to save his life for a time, seeing then all his hopes of pardon entirely baffled: The magistrates appointed to witness the ceremony having assembled about two o'clock, at the prison door, accompanied by the proper officers, the guard, and an infinite multitude of spectators; they, attended by two clergymen, went up to the prisoner, and having read over to him the sentence, they asked his objections to the executing the same. Young answered, that he had none: But observing that the sentence appointed the execution to be performed betwixt two and four in the afternoon, that suggested a thought to him, that if he could preserve his life till past four, the magistrates could not afterwards execute him. Accordingly, he desired leave to retire a short time with the two Rev. ministers, for ghostly consolation, which being granted, he returned with them to the iron room, where he had been confined since under sentence; and after talking a little with them, he begg'd they would allow him to spend a few minutes in private devotion; which, seeming reasonable, they withdrew, and he ushered the clergymen to the outer door of his apartment, which shutting behind them, he retired to the inner room, the iron door of which he also immediately bolted.

Soon after the officers of justice, surprised at his delay, endeavoured to open

his door, which, to their great surprize, they found bolted: Then they knocked, and desired him to come out. No, said he; in this place I am resolved to defend my life to the utmost of my power.

On this the door was attempted to be forced, but it being of iron, in vain were the most violent endeavours used for that purpose.

This extraordinary accident was immediately rumoured about. My lord provost was sent for, and accordingly appeared in person. The city clock was stopped, and surprize and expectation appeared in every face. A considerable time being spent to no purpose in forcing the door, that attempt was given over, and the only possible method of getting in was found to be by breaking up the floor of the room over head of the prisoner, which at length was, in about two hours, effectuated; and a passage being opened, a gun was presented to him, in order to terrify him, and compel him to open the door: But this did not frighten him in the least; for he said, as he lived, so he desired to die, like a soldier. The fellow, however, who held the gun, being a little remiss, Young making a leap up, laid hold of the muzzle, and pulled it down, threatening upon getting possession of the piece, to shoot the first man that dared to enter; but happily the gun was unloaded, which prevented so fatal a catastrophe. Rewards were then offered to such of the city guards as would go down and seize him; and, at length, after several refusals, one fellow had the courage to go down, whom Young welcomed with a violent blow on the breast from the butt end of his gun, that laid the soldier on the ground. Had Young been armed with a sword or bayonet, it is likely the fate of the first adventurer would have stopped the attempts of a second; but he having only an empty musket, and the passage being wide, three or four more jumped in at once, and at length, after a violent struggle, overpowered and bound the unhappy victim; who still refusing to walk, the door was opened, and he dragged headlong down stairs, in a most deplorable condition. When he was brought out, he asked, if it was yet four o'clock, (as indeed it then was) but being answered, that he should be hanged, were it past eight, he immediately composed himself to suffer that so much dreaded death. Still, however, did he refuse being necessary to his own murder (as he was pleased to term it) by walking, as usual, to the place of execution: He was therefore forced up upon a cart, where, the hangman sitting by him, holding the end of the rope, which was immediately put about his neck, he

he was in this manner dragged to the Grass-market, amidst thousands of amazed spectators; where again refusing to ascend the scaffold, he was carried up by the guard, and after about 15 minutes, being near half an hour past four, and just almost dark, he was hanged by the neck till he was dead.

This poor man had served in the army many years, with reputation; was beloved by his officers, being never before convicted of the least offence, and was said to have been recommended to the first vacant colours in his corps.

The extraordinary manner of his exit, the strenuous efforts to preserve his life, and the unhappy success that attended them, made him an object truly worthy of compassion; and it is indeed doubted, if so unusual a case has occurred in the present age.

Some curious Paragraphs extracted from a Pamphlet, intitled, Gephyralogia: An historical Account of Bridges, ancient and modern, &c. including a more particular History and Description of the New Bridge at Westminster, &c.

THE Egyptians, who are generally acknowledged to be the fathers of the arts and sciences, had not, that we know of, any bridge worthy of notice in their populous and fertile kingdom. The Nile, which traverses that country from South to North, is perhaps too large and rapid to admit of the erecting such a structure over it, even in its most calm and temperate state: But the annual swellings of that river, which come down with such violence from the mountains of Ethiopia, as to overflow the whole Low Country, would, doubtless, have washed away any such building, tho' erected with all the strength and solidity that are almost peculiar to the edifices of that nation. Add to this, that the bed of the river, and all the soil for some miles on either side, are such a deep slime, mud, or mould, that it would have been difficult to have laid a proper foundation, to sustain the weight of a great number of heavy arches extending from shore to shore. This is more particularly true with regard to the Lower Egypt: And if it be demonstrable, as many are of opinion, that the soil of that country is continually rising, by means of the mud, which the Nile annually leaves behind it, the highest bridge that could have been erected in the first ages of the Egyptian grandeur, must long before this time have been choaked up and buried, if it had even been able to resist the impetuosity of the current.

The children of Israel, who, at their de-

parture out of Egypt, were conducted thro' the Red Sea by a miracle, and by another of the same nature thro' the river Jordan, in order to take possession of the promised land, had not certainly any occasion for bridges in that expedition; and as they had scarce any other river in all their country, but the Jordan only, they seem to have had but little knowledge, either of the structure or use of such artificial means of passage. The arts, indeed, were in general but very low among the Jews; and tho' they did not always go to the Philistines to have their goads and plow-shares pointed, it is probable they knew little more of workmanship in wood, stone, or metal, than what was just necessary for the common operations of husbandry, war, and providing against the inclemency of the weather. A bridge might be laid over the brook Kildron, the largest stream near Jerusalem, with a single plank. And what their knowledge of the world about them was, we may guess from the name of Sea given to the little lake of Tiberias, which is surpassed by many in Switzerland, and even in Scotland and in Ireland. Their name for the Euphrates, tho' not at any vast distance from them was the Great River, as if it had been emphatically so, in comparison with all others, as well as with their own Jordan. Need we wonder, after considering the Jews in this light, that we do not meet with the description, or even the name of a bridge in all the books of the sacred scriptures?

As the first empire of the world is ascribed to the Assyrians and Babylonians, so we must also allow them the honour of building the first bridge that is recorded in history. Herodotus and Curtius give this honour particularly to Nitrois, a queen who reigned in Babylon after Semiramis.

What idea can we have of the famous colossus at Rhodes, except that it was a bridge of peculiar construction? Is it reconcileable to reason, does any other extraordinary instance of art render it probable, that a statue of brass, according to our present idea of a statue, should stride a-cross the mouth of a port, and be of such immense proportions, that a large ship of those days could sail in, with her masts standing, and sails spread, betwixt its legs? The project of cutting mount Athos into the figure of Alexander (as it was proposed to that prince) with such magnitude, that he should hold a town in one of his hands, seems less extravagant than the design would have been of forming and erecting such a brazen statue. But if we suppose a large and lofty bridge, or arch, to be turned a-cross the mouth of the haven, and covered all over with thick plates of brass; and

and that the building was carried up on the top of this arch, to something like the figure of a man, and all plated over in the same manner; may we not then, in some measure, account for this wonder, which, as it is now represented to us, must pass for the most incredible of all the seven?

After an abstract of the accounts that have been transmitted to us of the bridges in China, particularly of the Flying Bridge, which is said to be a single arch from the top of one mountain to the top of another, the author gives us a reflection and a piece of modern description, which are both worthy of notice.

We mention the Jesuits (says he) as the authors of these accounts, because as it is from them that we have all our magnificent ideas of the Chinese genius, virtues, and arts, we would not have more credit given to the story of the flying bridge, than the honesty of those good fathers may justly command. If we must deduct as much from their relations of the mechanical skill and ingenuity of those people, as the late account of lord Anson's voyage obliges us to deduct from their moral perfections, probably that wonderful arch may not be found more extraordinary than some which are now to be seen in Europe. Great distance, and partial or interested representations, have a strange power of concealing the defects of objects, and even of giving them such beauties and proportions, as vanish before a nearer view. By what we know of the Chinese naval and military architecture, we have no great reason to form extravagant notions of their civil, in which we include the building of bridges.

There is a very modern structure now in Europe, which, tho' not properly a bridge, is erected so perfectly according to the rules of bridge-building, that it may admit of some degree of comparison on this occasion. It is the marble aqueduct erected by the late king of Portugal, about half a league north-west of Lisbon, betwixt two hills, in order to supply the royal palace, and part of that city with water. This structure (as the author is assured by a gentleman who has often seen it) consists of 18 or 19 arches, of which the three middlemost, which stand in the valley, are not less than 300 feet high; the others growing shorter gradually as the bases of them ascend the declivity of each hill, that they all may equally contribute to support a level plane at the top, along which the water glides in two small marble channels, each of which is the section of a cylinder. These channels have a narrow foot-way betwixt them, and one common arch turned over them both, for security against ill-designing men, who might wantonly

Appendix, 1750.

or wickedly foul or poison the waters. On each side, without the arch, is another narrow foot-way. But neither the breadth or length of the whole structure is at all comparable to that of Westminster bridge, tho' part of it so much exceeds in height: Nor is the height so very wonderful, if we consider how small a space it extends, and that the abutments are two natural rocks. We know how high the very houses are built in Edinburgh, where they have the advantage of the side of a hill to support them.—It should not here be omitted, that the marble channels are carried many feet thro' the hill next Lisbon, which is higher than the other, after they leave their artificial support.

The project of a new bridge, for the use of the adjacent city to London, had been long formed before any steps were taken towards the carrying it into execution. It had even been petitioned for to parliament, and rejected upon a petition against it by the Londoners. But the public utility of such a structure was so very evident, that reason at last prevailed against prejudice and particular interests. The citizens of London, however, did not cease to be alarmed at every motion that was made on this occasion. They remonstrated against it in such terms, as if the very existence of their trade and welfare depended greatly on the absolute defeat of such a scheme for ever; whereas it was evident at that time to all unprejudiced persons, that unless London-bridge were pulled down, and the ships could come up to Westminster, and unless the quays and the custom-house were removed farther up the river, London must still be the emporium of foreign merchandize, upon which all the other branches of our trade chiefly depend.

As to shops for the retailing of all commodities, they will always be found where there are great numbers of inhabited houses, and might have been equally numerous in Westminster, whether the bridge had or had not been erected.

The city laws would indeed be so far from preventing this, that the expence which attends obedience to them has been often found too powerful a motive, without any other concurring with it, to drive the free citizens into habitations, where they could live with greater freedom. We have seen London greatly decay within 20 years past, when Westminster-bridge did not exist to do it any harm. We may see it revive and flourish under other management, when the citizens shall more impartially consider their own true interest, as they seem to begin to do, in spite of Westminster-bridge now opened, and tho'

4 G

never

never so many other bridges should be erected over the Thames.

Upon the accident of the sinking pier, our author observes, That this event did not less surprize, than perplex those who had the conduct of the work, and who thought their labours almost at an end. The pier that sunk was neither one of the last erected, nor were the arches it supported the last that had been turned: So that whatever the hazard might have been at first to build without piling, that hazard, with respect to this part of the bridge at least, was thought to be entirely over. But art (says he) can no more prescribe a time for natural accidents, than it can absolutely predict the certainty of their advent: The most it can do is to make the best human provision against them, which was here neglected.

The author concludes the narrative part of his performance with the following paragraph.—From the whole of this historical account of bridges, we apprehend it appears to every intelligent person, that if we consider its length, its breadth, the regularity of the design, the beauty of the workmanship, the manner in which it was constructed, the breadth and depth of the river it extends over, the quantity of water that passes thro' it without sensible obstruction, the great inland navigation which it does not impede, the spaciousness and commodiousness of the carriage and foot-ways over it, the easy ascent it affords, the avenues that lead to it, the provision made for the defence of passengers against the weather in their way over it, the watch for the security of their persons, and the beautiful globular lights suspended on irons that project inwards, with a lofty sweep, from the top of each recess, and on the sides of the abutments (with other political additions;) all these things, and many more that might be enumerated, being well considered, we apprehend, that no bridge which we have described or mentioned, or that is described or mentioned in history, can equal that of Westminster in the greatest number of estimable particulars and circumstances; tho' possibly some of them may surpass it in one or two, that might happen rather from nature and accident, than from art and contrivance.

ON WESTMINSTER-BRIDGE.

WHEN late the river gods would visit Thames, [names;
Rhine, Danube, Tagus, Seine, and other
Aliur'd by fame, who told what fleets he
bore, [shore:
What wealth, what splendor, dignify'd his

As from the sea, high surging on his tide,
Thro' woods of ships they with amazement
ride;

[close,
Still new delights the varying scenes dis-
Till interceptive, the first bridge arose.

"Is that, they ask, the work of hu-
man skill?" [hill?"

"Or springs the river from yon peopled
This doubt, by slow approach, is solv'd
at last, [past.

And the press'd arches they with trembling
Now mingling spires, and Paul's stupen-
dous dome [roam;

Attract their eyes, as westward on they
Till winding to the left, as leads the flood,
Sprung the last wonder, and before them
flood. [here;

Astonish'd! ravish'd! "No confusion's

"Th' uncumber'd structure swells distinct
and clear, ["O Thames, impart!

"They cry'd.—But whence? how rais'd?

"Wrought all thy sons by learned Isis'
art? ["Cole, and Lee,

"Wey, Kennet, Wandle, Mole, and

"Their beds relinquish'd, labour'd they
for thee? ["those,

"Or say, if from the deep, to succour
"His fav'rite thou) our common father
rose? ["toil'd

"He, ancient architect, with Phœbus

"On Ilion's walls, which long the Gre-
cians foil'd: ["maid,

"And he, or Phœbus, or the blue-ey'd

"Must plan this bridge, and lend the
workmen aid. ["bestride,

"Like this, no pile did e'er our streams

"Tho' crowded towns rise thick on ei-
ther side; ["they stray,

"Tho', thine except, thro' fert'lest plains

"And wath more spacious kingdoms in
their way."

PETITION to CUPID. A SONG. To Miss C. GRAY.

THRO' the dark, dun, sequester'd
shade,

Oppress'd with worst of cares—with
love, [glade,

I stray; or thro' the deep umbrageous
And breathe my passion to the grove.

The woods re-echo back my sighs,

The saplings bend to hear my woes;

My tears the crystal stream supplies,

Which in hoarse gurgling murmurs flows.

But Kitty! cold as northern snows,

Smiles at my pain, and mocks my grief;

Neglect her icy breast has froze,

Nor will she deign to yield relief.

O Cupid! pierce this lovely fair,

Make her to feel the pangs I prove;

Or free my soul from black despair,

Or let me die a slave to love, Altar

Altars and shrines to thee I'll raise,
 Shall outvie Jove's, each op'ning day;
 Shepherds and nymphs shall sing thy praise,
 And mortals own thy sov'reign sway.
 Thee we'll adore thro'out the globe,
 Lucina, light the nuptial torch;
 Haste Hymen, wave thy saffron robe,
 Pine blazing round the sacred porch.

T. R.

*An ODE to the Hon. Master SPENCER,
 on his Birth-Day. By Mr. Hatchett.*

1.

HAPLY, my young Mæcenas, your
 third lustre's past, [ripen fast:
 When the bright seeds of knowledge
 Life's vernal season this, whose genial
 heat, [seat:
 The new idea shoots from the soul's fertile
 So Sol in Aries swells the pregnant earth,
 Which teems unnumber'd beings into
 birth.

2.

While now the blooming mind, thrice
 lov'd, important heir,
 Under the sapient eye of guardian care,
 Is forming unto all that's great and good,
 The long inherent virtues of your lineal
 blood;
 So to the rose succeeds another rose,
 Which with its native beauty sweetly
 blows.

3.

While your learn'd Mentor wins you to
 the polish'd arts,
 Each moral, generous sentiment imparts,
 With anxious labour teaches to controul
 The growing, fierce, contending passions
 of the soul, [trist zeal.
 And fires your heart with god-like pa-
 To shine the darling of the common-
 weal.

4.

While oft he sets before you this illustrious
 plan,
 That virtue only can ennoble man;
 Can make those gifts, which fortune may
 have giv'n, [earth and heav'n;
 Be, as they ought, possess'd, approv'd by
 Be't mine to sing the glad returning
 morn, [born.
 When a delight and blessing you were

5.

Thrice welcome task! the tuneful tribute
 let me pay, [born day;
 Blithe as the lark that chants the new-
 In liveliest strains proclaim the happy
 birth, [to mirth:
 And with the jocund Muse let all devote
 On pain of dulness, hear the Muses say,
 Let nought but wit, and mirth, be seen
 to day.

6.

Worthy the subject, me, the fav'rite Nine,
 inspire! [lyre!
 Give me to touch for once the Thracian
 Let all creation feel the sprightly song;
 To its gay force let even lifeless matter
 throng:
 Dulness the penalty, if grief and woe,
 On this glad day, their rueful faces show.

7.

Sacred this day to jollity, hence care and
 strife! [zest of life!
 Thou friend of health, thou sparkling
 Come, laughing joy, exhilarate the
 blood, [flood:
 And cause quick circulation like a rolling
 Dulness the penalty, if grief and woe,
 On this glad day, their rueful faces show.

8.

Thy chearful influence shed round from
 morn to night, [make light;
 Brighten each eye, each Stoick heart
 To beauty give the dimpling graceful
 smile, [hours beguile:
 In warbling note, and Attick step, the
 Dulness the penalty, if grief and woe,
 On this glad day, their rueful faces show.

9.

Nor fail to send your warmest wishes to
 the sky, [high;
 Oft as you charge the circling goblet
 A healthful round of natal days the toast,
 To the dear, lovely youth, mankind and
 nature's boast:
 Dull be for ever the unsocial soul,
 That in gay chorus joins not with the
 bowl.

*A Lady, seeing his Royal Highness the Duke
 of Cumberland's Picture at a Painter's,
 sat down and wrote the following Lines.*

OUT from the injur'd canvas, painter,
 strike [like:
 These lines too faint: The picture is not
 Exalt thy thought, and try thy toil again;
 Dreadful in arms, on Culloden's late
 plain [air
 Place our great duke: Impendent in the
 Let h's keen sabre, comet-like, appear,
 Where-e'er it points, denouncing death:
 Below [rous foe
 Draw routed squadrons, and the num'
 Falling beneath, or flying from his blow.
 O painter! let thy shades and lights express
 The perfect hero in that glorious dress:
 Then shall each British eye the picture
 know, [grow;
 And palms for thee beneath his laurels
 Then, spite of time, thy work shall ever
 shine,
 Nor Virgil's colours last so long as thine.

An O D E.

By a Friend of his Grace the late Duke of
Richmond.

Ad Ducem Novocastrensem, &c.

DUM salutantum populi patrumque,
Te frequens circum, strepit hinc &
inde

Turba, quæ salvo reduci que gratu-
-larier ardet,

Excipis cunctos hilari atque comi,
Quo soles, vultu, neque me clientes
Inter extremos, bone dux, morantem
Despicis altus.

Sed parùm lætam mihi quid repente
Objicis frontem? lachrymis obortis
Quid genam humectas! miser heu! amicum
Quæris ademtum:

Quæris ah! frustra: veterem sodalem
Quæris ah! frustra pius; ille rebus
Major humanis supera evolavit
Vestis ad astra.

Jam beatorum in numero beatus,
At tui semper memor & suorum,
Ponere ingentem jubet ille luctum
Teque suosque.

On CHRISTMAS DAY.

SUFFICE it, human wretch, desil'd,
forlorn, [born!
To know for thee the Son of God was
Since well confirm'd this gen'ral truth
hath stood, [blood;
Witness'd by wonders, and by martyrs
Little avails it to dispute the while,
If old or new be the correcter style;
Whether th' angelick star diffus'd its ray
On the solstitial *, or some distant day.—
The great event thy gratitude should raise,
Not on this only, but—thro' all thy days.

ADDITIONS to December.

MONDAY, 31.

OF the 16 malefactors, who were or-
dered for execution, Joshua West be-
ing respited for a month, (see p. 570, 571.)
15 suffered death this morning at Tyburn,
pursuant to their sentence; among whom
was William Baker, the sugar-baker. Four-
teen were carried to the place of execution
in five carts, and Baker went in a mourn-
ing coach, where a hearse attended to
carry off his body, which was buried in
the church of a parish where he had lived
several years with reputation. They all
behaved with a decency suitable to their
unhappy circumstances.

We mentioned the death of Mr. Solo-
mon Lowe, master of the academy at
Hammer-smith, p. 573. He was buried at
Whitechapel church, and the following

character given of him by way of inscrip-
tion for his monument.

His look

Excited reverence,

And his approach

Good-will.

Engaging in his manners,

His conversation secured attention,

And circulated improvement.

Every gesture spoke humanity,

And every action benevolence.

He was awful

In piety;

Rational

In devotion;

In virtue,

Exemplary and inviting.

Master of almost every branch of know-
ledge,

Except

That which concerned his own excellencies,
And others failings.

In a word,

He lived as all good men would wish to die;

And dying,

Shewed how other men should live.

Explanation of the STATIONERS ALMA-
NACK, for 1751.

THE surrender of king John of France,
and his son, to Edward the Black
Prince, at the memorable battle of Poie-
tiers. The prince expressed in the attitude
of addressing his royal prisoner in the ele-
gant and pious speech, which he uttered
on that occasion; wherein he comforts
the captive king with the most noble ex-
pressions of tenderness and humanity, and
wholly ascribes the victory to God alone.
See Rapin.

Explanation of the OXFORD ALMANACK,
for 1751.

AN intersection of the Radcliffean li-
brary, with a representation of the
solemnity, when it was opened, (see Lond.
Mag. for 1749, p. 156.) on the area be-
ing his grace the duke of Beaufort, the
Rt. Hon. the earl of Oxford, Sir Walter
Wagstaff Bagot, Sir Watkin Williams
Wynne, and Edward Smith, Esq; Dr.
Radcliffe's trustees, delivering the keys to
Alma Mater, with the statue of the found-
er in the middle of the section; over
which, in miniature, is a view of the
outside of the library, embellished with
several emblematical figures, the arms of
the founder, and others.

MARRIAGES.

Dec. 25. **R**OGER Benson, Esq; in the
commission of the peace for
Bedfordshire, to Miss Louisa Sutcliffe, of
St. James's-street.

30. Alex-

* It has been a received opinion, that the nativity of Christ happened on the very day of the
winter solstice; which, if true, the new style is not exact, tho' less erroneous than the old.

1750. ADDITIONS to DECEMBER. 603

30. Alexander Ferguson, Esq; a gentleman of a large estate in Kent, to Miss Hughes, only daughter of the late Dr. Hughes, prebendary of Winchester.

DEATHS.

Dec. 29. **M**R. Stephen Austen, an eminent bookseller in Newgate-street. He was seized about 12 days before with a violent pain in his head, which threw him into a fever, and afterwards made its appearance by a running in that part of his head, where he had been trepann'd about 28 years since, for a fracture which he received by a fall from his horse.

Rev. Mr. Burchett, canon of Windsor, and rector of Clewer, in Berks.

Rev. Mr. Hutton, of College-street, Westminster, formerly vicar of Standford, in Berks, which he resigned at the death of Q. Anne. In 1716, he began to keep boarders for Westminster-school, and in 1719, was the chief establisher of the Westminster Infirmary, the first set up in England, which has since happily increased.

30. Francis Manwairing, Esq; possessed of 1500l. a year in Cheshire.

Ecclesiastical PREFERMENTS.

MR. Burroughs, B. D. presented to the vicarage of Elton Butterworth, in Kent.—Mr. Addiscombe, to the rectory of Heyton, in Bucks.—Mr. John Griffiths, B. A. to the rectory of Little Greenford, in Middlesex.—Mr. Timms, fellow of Lincoln-college, Oxford, to the living of West-Marlow, in Bucks.

Persons declar'd BANKRUPTS.

WILLIAM Homer, now or late of Idol-lane, broker.—John Cuff, of St. Dunstan's in the West, spectacle-maker.—Tho. Ross, of Walbroke, merchant.—John Gawson, late of the Devizes, linen-draper.—James Waterstone, of Stroud, in Gloucestershire, chapman.—Malachi Lindon, of St. James's, Westminster, carver.—Tho. Taylor, of Manchester, chapman.—Tho. Leighton, of St. Bride's, coach-maker, and dealer in horses.—Tho. Whap-ham, of Mitcham, in Surrey, whittler.—Edw. Cutter, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, brewer and maltster.—Michael Wooden, of St. John's, Southwark, shipwright.—Edw. Argles, of St. Andrew's, Holborn, mercer.—Isaac Bateman, of St. George the Martyr, in Surrey, victualler.—Abraham Smith, of Rygate, distiller and grocer.—John Blake, of Winchester, stone-mason.—Will. Burchett, of North-End, Middlesex, dealer.—Tho. Saunders, of Worcester, grocer.—Abraham Purdy, of St. Mary Rotherhithe, anchor-smith.

A General Bill of all the Christnings and Burials, from Dec. 12, 1749, to Dec. 12, 1750.

Christned	Males	7394	}	14548
	Females	7154		
Buried	Males	11742	}	23727
	Females	11985		

Decreased in the burials this year 1789.			
Died under 2 years of age			8024
Between 2 and 5			1533
5	10		709
10	20		746
20	30		2031
30	40		2542
40	50		2708
50	60		2107
60	70		1728
70	80		1038
80	90		475
90	100		80

A hundred 1. A hundred and one 3.
A hundred and two 1. A hundred and seven 1.

Remainder of the Catalogue for December.

POETRY.

1. **T**HE Rosciad; a Poem, in which the Excellencies, &c. of the three principal Actors are represented, pr. 1s. Robinson.

2. Stigand; or, the Antigallican; in Miltonick Verse. By J. Free, D. D. pr. 1s. Sheepy.

3. Robin Hood, a musical Entertainment, pr. 6d. Cooper.

4. The merry Man's Companion; a Collection of Songs, pr. 2s. bound. Kent.

5. An Ode on St. Cecilia's-Day, adapted to the antient British Music, price 6d. Corbett.

6. Thales: A Monody, sacred to the Memory of Dr. Pococke. By E. Smith, pr. 6d. Newbery.

7. A new Tea-Table Miscellany, pr. 2s. Reeve.

SERMONS.

8. Sermons on various Subjects; to which is added a critical Dissertation on 1 Cor. xi. 10. By S. Gough, M. A. pr. 5s. bound. Printed by C. and J. Ackers, in St. John's-Street; and sold by A. Millar, and J. Noon.

9. A Sermon at the Baptism of several Persons in Barbican, Nov. 2. By J. Gill, D. D. pr. 6d. Keith.

10. An Index to the Sermons published since the Restoration, pr. 2s. 6d. Newbery.

11. A Sermon at St. Matthew Bethnal-Green. By S. Eccles, M. A. pr. 6d. Strahan.

12. A Sermon preached at Gosport, at the Ordination of T. Williams. By J. Cumming, M. A. pr. 1s. Davidson.

13. Two Sermons at Nottingham. By J. Holland, pr. 1s. Noon.

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